Commonplace book

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Read Edit View history Tools

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Commonplace books (or **commonplace**s; also known as **commonplace** books, **commonplace** volumes, **commonplace** notebooks, or **commonplace** books) are bound blank books. They have been kept from antiquity and throughout the medieval, early modern, and modern periods. Commonplace books are traditionally filled with items of many kinds: notes, proverbs, adages, quotations, recipes, poems, sermons, outlines of weights and measures, prayer, legal formats, and more.[1]

A commonplace book from the mid-seventeenth century

Entries are most often organized under systematic subject headings[2] and often functionally resemble *glossaries*, which are chronological and retrospective.[3]

Overview [edit]

"Commonplace" is a translation of the Latin *locus communis* (from Greek τόπος κοινός, see literary topos) which means "a general or common place", such as a statement of proverbial wisdom. Such a statement is also known as a commonplace in the sections of such sayings, such as John Milton's example, "Commonplace book" is at times used with an expansive sense, reflecting its etymology as a collection in one volume which has a sentence frame (e.g. ethics) or explores several frames. The term commonplace with all the senses of the "archeology" or "inward-manuscripts" in the Renaissance period, and the term commonplace book with the senses of "outward-manuscripts" in the Renaissance period.[4]

Commonplaces are a separate genre of writing from diaries or travelogues. Commonplaces are usually readable, reusable, and collective, as well as often remaining useful scientific records. In fact, sometimes they were required of young women as evidence of their mastery of social roles and as a means of developing a sense of their upbringing.[5] They were also popular in Early Modern Europe. As a general rule, commonplace books were generally private collections of information, rather than public publications, although there were exceptions, most notably Erasmus' *Adagia*.[6] Commonplace books were also sometimes used as a tool for self-improvement.[7]

As a result of the spread of information throughout John Locke's work, he wrote a treatise in French on commonplace books, translated into English in 1706 as *A New Method of Making Common-Place-Books*,[8] in which he developed an indexing system. Locke's system was widely adopted, however Locke gave specific advice on how to arrange material by subject and category, using such key words as "Adultery" and "Drunkenness". Locke's system was not widely adopted, however, as it was complicated and required a large number of blank pages to be left at the beginning of the book. An example is Stan's Common-Place Book, formerly owned by Samuel Taylor Coleridge and given the Princeton Recommendation and Theory Collection.[9] Another is John Bell Bennett's Book, published in a century after Locke's treatise. A copy of this blank commonplace was used by Erasmus Darwin from 1776 to 1797, and it was later used by Charles Darwin as a notebook for his theories of transmutation of species.[10][11]

By the early eighteenth century, they had become an information management device in which a note-taker stored quotations, observations, and definitions. They were used in private households and in educational institutions, and were kept in manuscript, printed, or mechanical formats. The women, who were excluded from formal higher education, were generally private collectors of information. By the end of the eighteenth century, commonplace books were a popular, possibly women, activity. As they became more expensive, some were published for the general public.

History [edit]

Philosophical origins [edit]

Beginning in Stoicism, philosophers developed forms of argumentation and referred to them as commonplaces. He extended the idea to Rhetoric where he suggested that they also be used to help in composing arguments.[12] Hellenistic Greek and Roman writers such as Cicero and Quintilian further clarified the idea of commonplaces and applied them to public speaking. He also created a method to memorize them called *ars memoria* or *vias regias* (royal roads) which involved places (*loci*), statements, and parts. Quintilian further developed the method in his *Institutio Oratoria*, a treatise on the education of orators. Quintilian's method was widely adopted in the Middle Ages and Renaissance.[13] Framed these commonplaces in moral and ethical terms.[14]

Florilegium [edit]

Main article: Florilegium

By the eighth century, the idea of commonplaces was used primarily in religious contexts, by Christian writers. Commonplaces were collected in books called florilegia, from the Latin for flower, *flos*. Early florilegia were often organized according to the order of the books of the Bible and appearance in the works from which they were taken, but by the thirteenth century they were more commonly organized under thematic headings.[15] These florilegia were sometimes referred to as *florilegia* which sometimes as glosses of florilegia.[16]

Early examples [edit]

Precursors to the commonplace book were the records kept by Roman and Greek philosophers of their thoughts and the observations they collected from other thinkers. The practice of keeping a journal such as this was particularly recommended by books such as Seneca and Plutarch's *Moralia*.[17] Marcus Aurelius' *Meditations* are an example of this.[18] Another ancient record of thoughts and observations is *The Pillow Book of Sei Shonagon*, a collection of lists and jottings from the early Heian period in Japan. It became a book consisted of anecdotes and poetry, daily thoughts and lists. However, it was not a commonplace book as it was not organized by subject and was not intended for others.[19]

A number of **zibaldone**s scholars kept something resembling a commonplace book—for example Leonardo da Vinci, Galileo, and Isaac Newton—but the most famous commonplace book of the Renaissance is Erasmus' *De Copia*, a manual for students of Latin and Greek.[20] Erasmus' *De Duplici Copia* (1512) was a two-volume work that was intended to help students become fluent in Latin and Greek. It was a guide to the use of commonplace books, and was widely adopted in Europe.[21] Erasmus' work was followed by Rhetorica by Juan Luis Vives in 1533,[22] including headings such as *Virtue Propriety, Transposition, Vice and Amplification*.[23]

Zibaldone di pensieri, written by the 17th-century Italian poet Giambattista Marino

Zibaldone [edit]

During the course of the fifteenth century, the Italian peninsula was the site of the development of two new forms of commonplace book: the *zibaldone* and the *quaderno di ricordanze* (book of records). What differentiated these two forms was their language of composition: a vernacular,[24] Giovanni Rucellai, the author of one of the most sophisticated examples of the genre, defined it as a "talked of book".[25]

Zibaldone were always paper codices of small or medium format—twice the large codex of registry books or other display texts. They also lacked the strong, formal structure of commonplace books. Instead, they were characterized by a "centrifugal" structure, with a multiplicity of beginnings and endings and codex sections which were added to the pseudo-sheaves of a fetal gestation.[26] They also lacked the formal, hierarchical structure of commonplace books, instead organized by chronological sequence and contained what paleographer Armando Petrucci describes as "an entertaining variety of texts and notes".[27] Devotional, technical, documentary, and literary texts appear side by side in no discernible order. Examples of genres found in *zibaldone* include: personal memoirs, recipes, and favourite quotations from Aquinas and Virgil mixed in among private letters.[28][29][30]

By far the most popular literary selections were the works of Dante Alighieri, Francesco Petrarca, and Giovanni Boccaccio.[31] The Florentine Giovanni Rucellai's *zibaldone* contained 50 literary selections from texts used by modern scholars as a source for interpreting how merchants and artisans read literature, and how they used it in their own compositions.[32]

The best-known *zibaldone* is Giacomo Leopardi's incomplete *Zibaldone di pensieri*. It was published posthumously in 1898 and is considered by many to be the most important example of the genre.[33] It was followed by others, such as those by Lichtenberg, Joubert, Coleridge, and Valery afterwards.

English [edit]

By the seventeenth century, commonplacing had become a recognized practice that was formally taught to college students in such institutions as Oxford.[34] John Locke appended his indexing system to the commonplacing section of his pedagogical work *An Essay Concerning Human Understanding*.[35] The commonplace books of both Francis Bacon and John Locke were widely read and influential.[36] Bacon's commonplace book, *Promus of Formularies and Elegancies*, was published in 1883 and contained 1,655 entries.[37] Locke's commonplace book was used by many writers, including the first thirteen of the Scriblerians,[38] as both the philosopher and theologian William Paley was known to have used it.[39] Both Ralph Waldo Emerson and Henry David Thoreau were known to keep commonplace books at Harvard University (their commonplace books survive in published form).[40]

However, it was also a domestic and private practice that was particularly attractive to authors. Some famous users include Samuel Taylor Coleridge, Mark Twain, and Virginia Woolf kept many commonplace books at their residences.[41] Old new literary, which at Thomas Hardy, Samuel Taylor Coleridge